

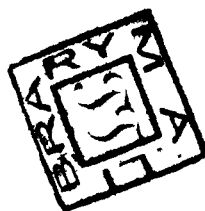
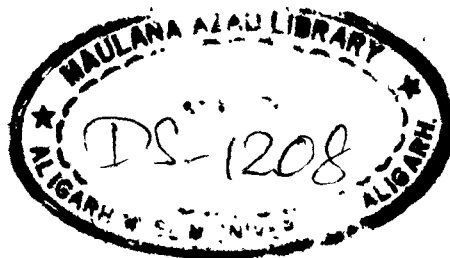
**A STUDY OF ANXIETY AND LEVEL OF
ASPIRATION OF CRIMINALS CONVICTED FOR
CRIMES AGAINST PERSON AND PROPERTY**

DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF
M. Phil. in Psychology

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C H A P T E R -I

A- Aims and Objectives of the Investigation

Present investigation aims to study the level of anxiety and aspiration among two groups of criminals; one convicted for crimes against person and other convicted for crimes against property and also among normals. It also aims to find out the differences in level of aspiration and anxiety between different groups of subjects i.e. between two groups of criminals, between different groups of criminals and normals and between criminals as a whole and normals with regard to above noted personality variables.

Ultimate and generalized objective of the study is to collect information regarding etiology of various type of crime with the hope that such individual researches when reviewed in future may single out certain personality patterns that are more prone to some specific kind of crimes. As a consequence of such discourage more efficient ways of dealing with criminals and delinquents could easily be evolved and more effective preventive measures could be adopted as well as effective treatment to modify the behaviour of the criminals could be applied.

B- Meaning and Nature of the Important Terms of the Problem:

The important terms of the problem that need discussion are anxiety, level of aspiration and criminal. The following discussion presents a comprehensive picture of the nature and meaning of these terms:-

(1) Anxiety:

The concept of anxiety is a complex phenomenon which has been defined as "an unpleasant emotional state or condition which is characterized by subjects feelings of tension, apprehension, and worry, and by activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system".

According to Nijhawan (1972) Anxiety, one of the most pervasive psychological phenomenon of the modern era, refers to a "Persistent distressing psychological state arising from an inner conflict". Similarly May (1950) defines anxiety as "the apprehension cued off by a threat to some value which the individual holds essential to his existence as personality". Drever (1958) maintains "It is a chronic complex emotional state with apprehension or dread as its most prominent component, characteristic of various nervous and mental disorders". Heinrich Neumann (1859), in his

influential textbook of psychiatry, developed on interpretation of anxiety as a danger signal. Anxiety, according to Neumann, arises when the person becomes aware of threats vital concern.

In view of Freud (1924), anxiety was "something felt", a fundamental, unpleasant affective (emotional) state or condition. Freud observed it in his patients of anxiety neuroses and found that it was characterized by apprehension or anxious expectation, "all that is covered by the word nervousness", and efferent discharge phenomena.

The psychological symptoms of anxiety included heart palpitations, nausea, disturbances in respiration, sweating, muscular tension, tremor and vertigo. Anxiety was distinguishable from other unpleasant affective states, such as anger or depression, by its unique combination of phenomenological and physiological qualities, which gave it a special "character of unpleasure" (Freud, 1936).

In his early theoretical formulations, Freud believed that anxiety resulted from the discharge of repressed, somatic sexual tensions, which he called libido. When libidinal energy was blocked from normal expression, it accumulated and was automatically transformed into anxiety, or into symptoms that were anxiety equivalents. Freud subsequently modified this view in favour of a conception of

anxiety which emphasized that anxiety was an internal reaction or response that served as a signal to indicate the presence of a danger situation.

Kierkegaard (1944) distinguished between two different kinds of anxiety. The first, which is especially evident in children, is the apprehension associated with "a seeking after adventure, a thirst for the prodigious, the mysterious". The second is the anxiety concerned with the choices that one faces as a function of his responsibilities as a person. It is the second of these that is most significant in his philosophy and in the existential approach to anxiety that he put forward. The basis of this interpretation of anxiety is that strong individuation and self awareness necessarily make man free in and at the same time responsible for his choices from a multitude of possibilities. In the awareness of his necessity to make choices, together with the possibilities of failure and guilt, lie the sources of one's anxiety. Anxiety is thus a necessary accompaniment of increased individuation.

Mandler and Watson (1966) have proposed that anxiety occurs when an individual is interrupted in the course of executing a desired behavior sequence and has no alternative

course of action available. The result of the interruption is an emotional of helplessness and disorganization which we call anxiety. Competence, then, is the ability to control or prevent interruption.

Alpert and Haber (1960) have proposed that anxiety may facilitate or impair performance in evaluative situations depending on its nature. Wine (1971) and Sarason (1972) propose that anxiety be viewed primarily as an attentional phenomenon. The highly anxious person is one who attends to evaluative cues, to self generated concern about ability to do well enough, and to feelings of physiological arousal. The low anxious person attends to the task at hand and to the operations required for dealing with it effectively. Wolpe (1966) regards anxiety as a conditioned emotional response that may be unlearned through such counter conditioning procedures as deep muscle relaxation.

Spence and Spence (1966) equate anxiety with drive level, and thus arrive at the well known prediction of an interaction effect between anxiety and task difficulty on task performance.

Existential philosophers regard moral and religious dilemmas as the cause of anxiety. It is also true that many of the ideas about anxiety discussed by the existential

philosophers, such as Kierkegaard (1944) Jaspers (Schilpp, 1957), Heidegger (1949), and Sartre (1956) have found wide acceptance in psychology as well. Each of these philosophers has mentioned that physical symptoms such as dizziness, nausea, and sweating are part of anxiety and are salient in the thoughts of the anxious person. Each has characterized anxiety as a disturbing feeling that arises as a result of the lack of a clear standard of one's own, or of the possibility of failing to meet some perceived external standard. Each has emphasized that anxiety is a basic human emotion which cannot be avoided entirely. Finally, each has characterized anxiety as having negative as well as positive consequences. The negative consequences of anxiety include discomfort and counterproductive striving, often in the form of fear and avoidance of the unpleasant. Its positive consequences include the acquisition of new competence or the attainment of some higher stage of psychological development, such as a more satisfying perspective of one's life.

Heidegger (1949) holds that each person's very existence in the world causes him to experience anxiety irrespective of his social, political, economic or religious position. In response to this anxiety, each seeks assurance by merging his or her identity with that of others by conforming, or by becoming socialized. Socialization, however, brings a new source of anxiety, for when the individual

merges so completely with society that he or she loses the sense of identity and integrity, he or she again feels a sense of dread and nothingness. Heidegger identifies several defensive activities that people employ to hide their anxiety. These include superficial attempts at self analysis and "knowing it all" about the outside world, he also believes that this anxiety can, in some cases, bring humans into touch with their own individuality can cause them to become aware of those values and acts for which the individuals will claim responsibility.

Sartre (1956) distinguishes between fear, which has an external object, and anxiety, which has an internal object, namely distrust of one's own ability to react well under duress i.e., anxiety has to do with holding values and fear that one will not measure up to them. For example, a soldier who is about to go into battle may fear that he will be afraid or, an individual who has just been given some important new rank and responsibility may fear that he or she will not measure up fully to that role. Anxiety also occurs when one examines one's values and finds that they are not acceptable or absolute.

Sartre's notion of anxiety as fear of failure to measure up to internal or perceived external standards and as fear that one's own standards are not appropriate or "good enough" comes closest to the notion of anxiety. Freud (1936), like the existential philosophers, stressed the distinction between anxiety and fear. His distinction differs from theirs, however, Freud proposed that there is an objective anxiety and a neurotic anxiety. Objective anxiety is somewhat more complex than fear, incorporating, in addition, a sense of helplessness and general malaise. Objective anxiety results from some source of danger in the external environment. It is usually based on a substantial history of learning about that danger. Neurotic anxiety is a complex internal reaction to some perceived danger. It prepares the individual to flee or cope with the impending threat. However, it differs from fear in that it is based on external danger, but on the individual's own history of traumatic experiences such as birth, the loss of a loved one, or punishment of socially disapproved urges. Its source is some impulse to act acquired sometime in the individual's past, that cannot now be perceived because it was punished and then repressed from memory.

Cameron (1947) was given the description of the behavior of chronically anxious people to clear the meaning of anxiety, which is as follows:

The chronic anxiety reaction is characterized by the presence of persistently heightened skeletal and Visceral tensions, which disturb a person's habitual rhythms of living and predispose him generally to give exaggerated and inappropriate responses on relatively slight provocation. In well developed cases the patient's complaints and the examiner's finding together give a consistent clinical picture that is not difficult to recognize. The patient usually complains of tightness, aching or pain in his head, neck, shoulders, back and limbs which indicates increased muscular strain, particularly, but by no means exclusively in the main postural groups. The general increased reactivity of skeletal muscles can be clinically demonstrated in the brisk phasic stretch reflexes, the tremors in fingers, tongue and sometimes lips and eyelids. The patient usually looks or acts strained in walk and posture in facial expression, verbal reaction, gestures and other movements, and especially in response to intense or unexpected stimulation.

The common visceral complaints are those which we would expect from our knowledge of the visceral components of ordinary anxiety reactions. Thus, the patient tells us of loss of appetite or continual hunger, of difficulty in getting food down, nausea and regurgitation, abdominal discomfort spastic constipation or chronic mild diarrhea, or urinary frequency and urgency, Cardiac irregularities, breathing difficulties, secretory changes and cold, clammy extremities, or menstrual disorders or changes in sex pace, of dyspareunia or relative impotence.

The chronically anxious patient usually states that he cannot think clearly, concentrate or remember as he once could, and that he cannot seem to stick to any one task for long. Although these claims are seldom corroborated objectively by ordinary test procedures, one is not justified in concluding, therefore that they are unfounded. Most test situations call for a relatively brief period of application to a task set by someone else, who also provides special social motivation. The patient's difficulty is in setting his own tasks and providing sufficient motivation himself to keep at them until they are completed. He is usually irritable, fatigued, worried and discouraged. In his thoughts he may repeatedly return to problems facing him or

ruminate in a mildly compulsive manner over his possible errors of omission and commission. Many of his choices and decisions are made actually in response to his tensions rather than to factors in the objective situation.

It is obvious to an observer that the patient cannot let go and relax. His tensions contribute to his restlessness and interfere with adequate satisfaction in anything, and his restlessness and frustration contribute further to his tension. He falls asleep with great difficulty and only after a long period of tossing in bed, he awakens easily and once awake finds trouble in getting to sleep again. His sleep is often disturbed by anxiety dreams, sometimes of awesome or horrible predicaments, sometimes of his daytime fantasies and conflicts, which he carries over into the sleeping phases of his life in more or less recognizable forms. With this general background of unrelieved tension and strain, the patient is prone to develop anxiety attacks now and then, occasionally in response to stress which he can identify at the time but more often not.

Level of Aspiration

The term 'Level' of aspiration is english translation of German word "Anschpruchsniveau" which means the level of performance that an individual expects of himself. In other

words it refers to the goal that an individual sets for himself. However, while doing so he is seldom guided entirely by considerations which are realistic in nature. Level of aspiration has received considerable attention from investigators in the area of personality, Social Psychology, Clinical and Experimental Psychology, etc. The phenomenon was first observed as a matter of chance by Dembo, a student of Lewin, in the late twenties, while she was studying Experimentally produced anger through frustration. The situation required the subject to try hard for the unattainable goal set for him by the experimenter. During the course of her observation she noted that when the required goal was too difficult to attain, some of the subjects had set up on their own an intermediate level goal for attainment. This goal was termed as the subject's monetary level of aspiration'. However, she made no attempt to pursue the phenomenon that she had discovered.

It was left to Hoppe (1930), another student of Lawin, to define the phenomenon, study its characteristics, and deliberate over its nature. While defining the phenomenon he states "the subject always undertaken the task with certain demands which can change in the course of the activity. The totality of these constantly shifting, now indefinite

and now precise - expectations, goal settings or demands in connection with one's own future performance we shall term level of aspiration of the subject". It follows from what Hoppe states that it is the totality of highly shifting demands and expectations of varying vividness and specificity, which constitute level of aspiration.

Hoppe's method for studying level of aspiration was inferential, which involved drawing inference, about subjects level of aspiration on the basis of overt and verbal behaviour, including the expression of the feelings of success and failure during the course of the performance of the task or activity. His observation revealed that success tends to raise and failure tends to lower the level of aspiration, and that the characteristics of the subjects like ambition, cautiousness, and prudence, etc., exercise a determining effect. Obviously, the operation of these factors is not likely to make the individual realistic enough in his goals and expectations.

Latter investigators, while subscribing to Hoppe's concept of level of aspiration, found it necessary to reject his inferential technique on the grounds of objectivity and

Precision. Hausmann (1933), for example, made an important advancement from methodological point of view by requiring the subjects to make a 'bid' before each trial on a task. He was warned of penalty if failed to reach his bid, but no credit was given if he scored higher than the bid. These were obviously the factors extraneous to the concept of level of aspiration.

Jucknat (1937) developed an indirect but more precise method for studying level of aspiration. She made use of a series of ten paper and pencil mazes arranged in order of difficulty, which the subject could easily recognise when glancing over them. The subject was asked to choose a maze and start working on it. The particular maze chosen indicated his level of aspiration. The idea of framing the situation in such a way that the subject expressed his level of aspiration automatically could be considered to be a significant advancement over the subjective inferential technique of Hoppe.

The credit for making the procedure purely objective, however, goes to Frank (1935), who specified a set of operations, which made it possible to determine level of

aspiration quantitatively. The subject after each trial in a given task, was told his performance score and asked to state how well he intended to do next. This sequence was repeated a number of times. But doubts were soon raised as to whether the level of aspiration as measured by Frank conformed to the concept of level of aspiration as formulated by Hoppe. No doubt, Frank's procedure yielded a quantitative score implying that level of aspiration was a definite, clear, and precise goal, while no such specificity could be attributed to the Hoppe's concept. Level of aspiration as envisaged by Hoppe, it may be recalled, refers to a totality of highly fluctuant, now indefinite and now precise goals and expectations. It would be naive to expect the subject of Hoppe to give a clear cut and precise statement of the goal, because he himself could not be expected to be fully sure of the goal, he was aiming to achieve. This is because, Hoppe's subject entertained not one but a number of goals of highly - fluctuant nature at one and the same time. Thus, it is evident that level of aspiration as determined, by Frank's method was much different from what Hoppe had conceived it to be. The source of confusion was not in the method developed by Frank, but in the manner in which the phenomenon was conceptualized by Hoppe.

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Gardner (1940) considered this issue at length and contended that it was impossible to formulate a neat and clear cut definition of level of aspiration out of the hailstorm of highly subjective demands, goals, and expectations constituting Hoppe's concept of level of aspiration. According to Gardner, aspiration may be qualitative or quantitative, specific or vague, stable or transient, one or more at a time. But when we say 'Level' of aspiration, we at once attribute quantifiability and definiteness to aspiration. Therefore, there can be only one meaning of level of aspiration, and that is a quantitative indication of the goal which an individual makes regarding his future performance in a task. However, Gardner over looked an important point while dealing with the concept of level of aspiration. It is a matter of common experience that an individual, while undertaking to perform a task, may entertain not one but quite a number of goals, differing in height, but all related to the same task. The question arises as which of these goals would be taken to be the index of level of aspiration. While Gardner did not, but Lewin et al. (1944) did provide a clear cut answer to it.

According to Lewin, an individual while undertaking to perform a task buildings up a goal structure comprising

of a number of goals of varying level. There may be a very high dream goal, a wish goal, an ideal goal, an action goal, and also a low level goal which the individual was sure of attaining even if the luck or circumstances were against him. Lewin maintained that it is the 'action goal', that is, the goal an individual is trying for at a given moment which is to be taken as the index of level of aspiration. This 'action goal' based concept of level of aspiration has come to be accepted as the standard definition of level of aspiration. Hence, it refers to "the level of future performance in a given task which an individual, knowing his level of past performance in that task, explicitly undertaken to reach". (Frank, 1941).

However, Frank's operational definition of level of aspiration, though accepted widely by the investigators, has created the apprehension that requiring the subject to state explicitly the level of the goal he expects to achieve in a task, and then making him work for it in the presence of the experimenter, brings in certain defensive or idiosyncratic tendencies into operation, which could distort the expression of true level of aspiration of the subject (Cf. Gould, 1938; Gardner, 1940; Rotter, 1954; Zander and Curtis, 1962). Some recent investigators (Cf. Pareekh and Chattopa

dhayay, 1960; and Sinha, 1969) have even considered it desirable to use a semi-structured projective technique for determining level of aspiration undistorted by subjects' defensive tendencies. Pareekh and Chattopadhyay (1964), for example, in order to circumvent the factor of defensiveness, which was thought to be inherent in the procedure of Frank, developed a semi structured situation to enable the subject to project his true level of aspiration. An imaginary story of a farmer covering major areas relevant to his life was told, and the subject was required to predict the standard and conditions of life of the farmer with reference to the various areas or spheres of life included in the story. A summation of all scores derived from the projective responses given to the various areas constituted the level of aspiration of the farmer. Sinha (1969), too developed a semi-projective technique centered around the imaginary story of Shyamoo - the farmer, covering almost all the relevant areas of life and employing a more refined procedure of scoring. No doubt, the level of aspiration determined by the aforesaid semi-projective methods could be regarded to be free from the influence of defensive tendencies present in the subject in case the method of Frank really brought them into operation. However, taking the projected standard of achievement

as an index of level of aspiration in as - remote the future as five years hence was liable to bring in the factor of wish and ambition into operation, which could make level of aspiration. Somewhat less realistic. Besides, the anchoring effect of the past or preceding attainment on such a distant goal would also be considerably weaker. Hence, the projective method may not be a good substitute for the Frank's method of direct verbal expression.

The crucial question, however, is whether the widely used Frank's method direct verbal expression for studying level of aspiration really brings in the defensive or idiosyncratic tendencies into operation, distorting the expression of the true level of aspiration of the subject. Dispositional tendencies of the subject do affect his level of aspiration as is borne out by a number of studies (Rotter, 1954; Harway, 1955; Atkinson and Reitman, 1956; Chance, 1960), but the point is whether it is the method employed which results in the expression of defensive tendencies in the level of aspiration observed. Ali (1976) using 32 undergraduate psychology students as subjects and two equated codes - substitution tasks, each comprising of eleven parts, and employing 'within subject' design, studied this problem under what may be called as 'public' and 'private' conditions.

The two conditions were counterbalanced. The 'public condition', permitting the experimenter to have a clear view of what the subject expected to achieve and what the actually achieved with full knowledge to the subject of the experimenter observing his behaviour was in full conformity to the procedure of Frank. In the 'Private condition' on the other hand, the anonymity of the subject was impressed and fully assured procedurally. To control the factor of time the experimenter was present, but he sat at a distance from where there was no possibility of observing what the subject did. Besides, the subject wrote the number of codes he expected to complete and the number of codes he completed on a separate sheet, which he was told before the experimenter started to keep with him if he so desired. The results obtained indicated very little difference in the level of aspiration of the subjects as measured by goal-discrepancy and shifts under two conditions. Hence, it was concluded that the method of Frank did not result in any distortion in the expression of level of aspiration. The doubts raised in this connection were unfounded.

It is apparent from aforesaid considerations that the concept of level of aspiration underwent through what may be called as a ^{process of} metamorphosis along with the development of the method for its study and determination. Evidently, a method so as to make it yield a quantitative

measure of level of aspiration and which necessitates a concomitant refinement in the concept of level of aspiration as well. Hence, the operational definition of Frank, which conforms to the Lewin's concept, remains the standard definition of level of aspiration. Besides the procedure in itself does not bring any defensive tendency on the part of the subject into operation.

(iii) Criminal:

Since a 'Criminal' has been defined by Sutherland (1965) as one who commits a crime, it is, therefore, necessary first of all to elaborate the concept of crime itself.

Crime and Delinquency are an age old problems of every society. The observable changes have been in the 'nature' the 'form and the 'degree' of crime. Accepting the inevitability, universality and functionality of crime phenomenon, a Social Scientists like Emile Durkheim remarked, "crime is a social fact and human act. Crime is both normal and functional. No society could be exempt from it".

Since the concept of crime has been undergoing changes from time to time, from one social order to another, it is really a herculean task to give a precise definition of the

term 'Crime'. Moreover, it can be a 'legal definition' or a 'social definition'. Thus one has to use the definition according to the requirement.

Crime, according to Clarence Darrow (1934), is an "Act forbidden by the law of the land, and one which is considered sufficiently serious to warrant providing penalties for its commission". This definition closely follows that of Parmalee (1918) who describes it as an "Act forbidden and punished by law, which is always almost immoral according to prevailing ethical standards, which is always usually harmful to society, which it is normally feasible to repress by penal measures and whose repression is necessary or supposed to be necessary". Westermarck (1912) says that customs and laws are based on moral ideas, and that 'crimes' are such modes of behaviour as are regarded by society as 'crimes'. According to Adler (1942), the study of criminal behaviour is a department of the study of human behaviour in general and the study in criminology is a study of criminal behaviour. He regards 'crime' as merely 'an instance of behaviour prohibited by criminal law'. Sellin (1937) regards crime "as a deviation from, or breach of, a conduct norm". This deviation or breach is punished by society by means of its sanctions. But punishment is not the only criterion of value.

religion, arts, education, and other sociological agencies also reveal value.

Whether viewed from a purely legal angle or a purely sociological angle, whether it be argued that a forbidden act is really harmful to society or the individual, and whether the group which has the power and authority to enforce its beliefs is right or wrong, crime is more than a failure to adjust oneself to the dictates of society. Crimes are, therefore, classified as those against property, against morals and against the conservation of the resources of society. All these acts cannot be acts which are inimical to the established interests of society. They may vary from age to age and from country to country, but so long as society views them in the light of 'injuries', it takes upon itself the responsibility for their prevention through the instrument of criminal law.

What may be regarded as a crime, at one period of time, may not be regarded as crime at another period of time. Thus in the time of war, burning waste paper or not shading the lights may be regarded as a crime, as an act or omission, as the case may be, punishable by fine or even with imprisonment, but such an act or omission is not regarded as a crime in time of peace.

Some moralists and criminologists regard crime as an abnormal act of omission, as it is not in harmony with human nature. According to the Italian School of Criminologists, crime is abnormal, in so far as it is atavistic or pathological in its nature. Biologists like Despine and Garofalo regarded it as abnormal by reason of loss of acquired virtues. But Albrecht regards crime, biologically as normal because as in the case of any other organism, the dominating motive behind the criminal's act or omission is selfishness.

Halsbury (1933) defines crime as "unlawful act or default, which is an offence against the public, and which renders the perpetrator of the act or default liable to legal punishment".

There may be an act or omission which is against the interests of society, or may be sinful and yet the law may not have declared it a crime; on the other hand, an act or an omission may not be against the interests of society, or may not be sinful and yet a rule of the positive law may regard it as a crime punishable under the law for the time being in force. Further, what may be a lawful act or omission in one society may be regarded as a crime in another society.

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In real sense crime may be defined as an act or omission sinful or non-sinful, which a society or a State has thought fit to punish or otherwise deal with, under its law for the time being in force. The different acts and/or omissions, so punishable under the law, are known as crimes. Although various definitions of term "Crime" have been attempted but no comprehensive, exhaustive, concise and satisfactory definition has been formulated as yet. Therefore, in order to understand the nature of crime, thoroughly, it is necessary, first to understand the nature of criminal law and in the second place to discuss their criteria which has been evolved by the scholars of this discipline in order to judge any act whether it is a crime or not.

Criminal Law:

The criminal law is defined conventionally as a body of specific rules regarding human conduct which have been promulgated by political authority, which apply uniformly to all members of the class to which the rules refers, and which are enforced by punishment administered by the State. The characteristics which distinguish rules of criminal law regarding human conduct from other rules are, therefore, politicality, specificity, uniformity and penal sanction.

Politicality is regarded almost universally as a necessary element in criminal law. The rules of the trade union, the church, or the family are not regarded as crimes. Only violations of rules made by the State are crimes. This is an arbitrary distinction and is difficult to maintain when attention is turned to societies where patriarchal power, private self-help, popular justice, and other forerunners of legislative justice are found. Gypsies are glaring example of this type of society who neither have territorial organization nor written law but who do have customs, taboos, and semi judicial council which makes definite decisions regarding the property and behaviour of members of the group and often imposes penalties. These councils without political authority in the territory perform the same function within the gypsy group that courts perform in the political order. Similar was the case with early chinese immigrants in Chicago who established an unofficial court which had no political authority but in controversies among the Chinese people performed the same functions as did the Guild and the Family Council in their home country. Thus, the element of politicality is arbitrary and is not sharply defined.

Specificity is included as an element in the definition of criminal law because of the contrast in this respect between criminal law and civil law. The civil law may be general. One German civil code, for instance, provided that whoever intentionally injured another in a manner contrary to the common standards of right conduct was bound to indemnify him. The criminal law, on the other hand, generally gives a strict definition of a specific act, and when there is doubt as to whether a definition describes the behaviour of a defendant the judge is obligated to decide in favour of the defendant. In one famous case, for example, the behaviour of a person who had taken an airplane was held to be exempt from the consequences of violating a statute regarding the taking of "Self-propelled vehicles", on the ground that at the time the law was enacted "vehicles" did not include airplanes. Some laws, to be sure, are quite general.

The criminal law, however, contains no general provision that any act which, when done with culpable intent injures the public can be prosecuted as a punishable offense.

Uniformity or regularity is included in the conventional definition of criminal law because law attempts to provide even handed justice - without respect to persons. This means

that in case of criminal liability there is no exception because of a person's social status; an act described as a crime is crime, no matter who commits it. Also, uniformity means that law enforcement shall have no regard for the status of the persons who have committed crimes or are accused of committing crimes. This ideal, however, has varied widely in practice. Rigid rule and judicial discretion have alternated in importance. Rigid rule treats all persons in the class to which the law refers exactly alike, while judicial discretion takes into consideration varying elements in the situations of the members of the class. Equity, also developed as a method of doing justice in particular situations where iron regularity would not do it.

Penal Sanction, as one of the elements in the orthodox definition of law, refers to the notion that violators will be punished or at least threatened with punishment by the State. Punishment under the law differs from that imposed by a mob, in that it is applied dispassionately by representatives of the State in such a manner that it may win the approval of the cool judgement of impartial observers. A law which does not provide a penalty that will cause suffering is regarded as quite impotent and in fact no criminal law at all. However, the punishment provided may be very slight.

In the courts of Honor a verdict was reached, a party was declared guilty, and the disgrace of the declaration of guilt was the only punishment. In view of the difficulty of identifying the criminal law of Primitive Societies, where the institution of "the state" is not obvious, the suggestion, has been made that the penal sanction is the only essential element in the definition of criminal law, and that wherever proscriptions are enforced by a penal sanction, there criminal law exists. This is in contrast to the tort law, where the court orders the defendant to reimburse the plaintiff, but does not punish him for damaging the plaintiff. It is evident, however, that the punitive aspect of criminal law is on wane at present.

The rules of criminal law contain only definition of specific crimes, such as burglary, robbery, wrongful confinement, trespass and rape, but legal scholars have been able to abstract certain general principles from such definitions. These general principles apply ideally to all crimes and are the criteria actually used in determination of whether any particular behaviour is or is not criminal. They are consistent with the ideal characteristics of the whole body of the criminal law - politicality, specificity, uniformity, and penal sanction, and in fact, they may be viewed as translations

statements of the ideal characteristics of all crimes. The concern is shifted from determination of the characteristics of a body of rules of determination of the general characteristics of the many specific acts described in these rules. Thus, for example, penal sanction is a general characteristics of the criminal law, and liability to legally prescribed punishment is a characteristics of all acts is a crime must be more precise than statements of the general characteristics of a body of rules. One extensive and thorough analysis of crimes has resulted in a description of seven interrelated and overlapping differentiae of crime. Ideally, behaviour would not be called crime unless all seven differentiae were present. These differentiae (Cf. Sutherland 1965) are as follows:

First, before behaviour can be called crime there must be certain external consequences or 'harm'. "A crime has a harmful impact on social interests is a mental or emotional state is not enough. Even if one decides to commit a crime but changes his mind before he does anything about it, he has committed no crime. The intention is not taken for the deed.

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Second, the harm must be legally forbidden, must have been proscribed in penal law. Antisocial behaviour is not crime unless it is prohibited by law. As indicated previously, the law must have specifically prohibited the harm which occurs. Penal law does not have a retroactive effect; there is a long standing tradition against the enactment of ex-post-facto legislation.

Third, there must be "conduct", that is, there must be an intentional or reckless action or inaction which brings the harmful consequences about. One who is physically forced to pull the trigger of a gun does not commit murder, even if someone dies from the bullet.

Fourth, "mens rea" of "criminal intent" must be present. Hall suggests that legal scholars have often confused intentionality and motivation. Mens rea is identified with the former, not with the latter. The "motives" for a crime might be "good", but the intention itself might be an intention to effect a harm forbidden by the criminal law, a criminal intent. Thus, if a man decides to kill his starving children because he feels that they will pass on to a better world, his motive is good, but his intention is wrong. Persons who are "insane" at the time they perpetrate

legally forbidden harms do not commit crimes, for the necessary mens rea is not present.

Fifth, there must be a fusion or concurrence of mens rea and conduct. This means, for example, that a policeman who goes into a house to make an arrest and who then commits a crime after making the arrest while still in the house, cannot be considered a trespasser from the beginning. The criminal intent and the conduct do not fuse or concur.

Sixth, there must be a "causal" relation between the legally forbidden harm and the voluntary misconduct. The "conduct" of one who fail to file an income tax return is his failure to take pen and ink, fill out the form etc., the "harm" is the absence of a return in the collector's office. In this case, the "causal" relation between the two obviously is present. But if, for example, one shot a person (conduct) and the victim suffocated while in a hospital recovering from a wound, the relationship between conduct and harm (death) is not so clear-cut.

Seventh, there must be legally prescribed punishment. Not only must the harm be proscribed by law but, as indicated above, the proscription must carry a threat of punishment to violators. The voluntary conduct must be punishable by law.

These differentiae of crime are all concerned with the nature of the behavior which can properly be called crime, but in making decisions about most cases each criterion need not be considered separately and individually. If the mens rea conduct, and legally proscribed harm are obviously present, for example, the "causal" relation between harm and misconduct almost certainly will be present. In sum, the differentiae represent the kinds of subject matter to which proper attention must be paid both by criminal lawyers and criminal law theorists. There are, exceptions to the generalization that these are the elements of all crimes. Criminal law theory is not a body of precise principles, and consequently there are deviations from that which is logical and ideal. Two major exceptions to the above differentiae may be given as illustrations. First, in its ordinary meaning for some crimes criminal intent need not be present. In some other cases, the offender's intent is not considered. Instead, the person regardless of his intent is held responsible for the results of his conduct. Statutory rape is a case in point where no matter how elaborate the calculations, inquiries, or research which a male utilizes in reaching the conclusion that his female companion is above the age of consent, if he has sexual relations with her and it is subsequently shown that she was below the age of consent, he has committed

statutory rape. Certain other offenses, such as selling adulterated food and traffic offenses, are handled under the same rule.

In criminology, the inclusion in the concept "crime" of behavior which was not intended by the actor makes general theoretical explanation of all crime extremely difficult. No current theoretical explanations of criminal behavior can account for the strict liability offenses.

Second, "motive" and "intention" are confused in many court decisions. In the crime of libel, for instances, motive is explicitly considered. In many states, one cannot publish truthful, albeit damaging statements about another unless his motive is good. Criminal conspiracy also frequently involves consideration and evaluation of a defendant's motive as well as his intention. In most instances, however, motivation is taken into account only in the administration of the criminal law, i.e. in making a decision as to the severity of the punishment which should be accorded to a criminal.

C H A P T E R _-II

In the present chapter we would critically examine certain important studies dealing with level of aspiration and anxiety among criminals and delinquents under two saperate headings as follows:-

(A) Anxiety:

The number of empirical studies on anxiety and level of aspiration among criminals and delinquents in Western countries as well as in India are insufficient. Studies related with the psychological aspects of criminals have rarely been favourite among psychologists, especially among Indian Psychologists. Studies upon criminals, delinquents to other similar people have mosly been conducted by criminologists and sociologists. Criminology itself has for long been a branch of sociology. The researches have mostly dealt with the statistical and sociological aspects of crimes and criminals.

The following few studies, however, on anxiety and level of aspiration represent the trend of researches and nature of findings in this field.

Channabasavanna et al. (1979) carried out a study on anxiety in undertrial prisoners. Under-trial prisoners in the central Jail, Bangalore formed the subjects of this study. To facilitate a structural interview and to collect necessary information a proforma was prepared. Forty subjects who neither suffered from mental illness in the past, nor were suffering from any such illness at the time of examination, were taken as controls. Precision matching was done for age and sex. After recording data on Socio-demographic factors Max Hamilton Scale was administered to them.

The level of anxiety was measured by Max Hamilton Anxiety Rating Scale; (This scale was selected because in it various symptoms of anxiety are rated separately on a five point basis and somatic symptoms are given equal place as the psychic symptoms. Its interrater reliability is also high).

Among the previous days' admission, the first, middle and the last persons were selected for the study. Thus thirty male and ten female under trial prisoners were studied in fourteen sittings. After developing sufficient rapport with the subjects other information was collected. A detailed physical examination was done to rule out any physical illness.

The investigators found that with regard to variables, namely, Anxiety, Mood, Tension, Fear, Insomnia, Depression General Somatic (Muscular), General somatic (Sensory), Cardio-Vascular symptoms, Gastro intestinal symptoms and autonomic symptoms, small undertrial prisoners scored more than normal subjects. The difference was statistically significant. On variables like respiratory symptoms and genito urinary symptoms, under-trial prisoners scored higher but the difference was not statistically significant. Only on one variable i.e. cognitive, normal control group scored higher but the difference was statistically insignificant.

The total scores on all the thirteen variables of the Max Hamilton Anxiety Rating Scale were also compared and significant difference between U.T.P., & Normals was found. The results of this study show that the under-trial prisoners are more anxious than normals. But it may not be for granted that all the undertrial prisoners in the strict sense be labelled criminals'. Because many of them may be convicted while many others may be exonerated from criminal charges.

Another study related with our problem was conducted by Arvinder (1980) on "Personality of Murderers and Psycho-social factors related to Murder". The sample consisted of two groups of 75 subjects, each drawn from two Jails of Punjab; Central Jail, Patiala and Central Jail, Ludhiana.

These subjects were selected randomly. Out of the total convicted prisoners of these Jails. The first group consisted of 75 prisoners convicted for murder and the second group included 75 prisoners convicted for petty crimes such as, theft, Excise and Opium Act violations and other minor crimes. Eysenck's (1968) PEN, Scheier and Cattell, (1961), NSQ (Neuroticism Scale questionnaire) and Sinha's (1968) MAS (Manifest Anxiety Scale) were employed.

The prisoners were at first contacted individually in the Jail and their case and crime history was recorded. After establishing full rapport with them above noted three tests were administered.

The results' of this study show that Murderers scored higher on all of the three tests than the other criminals.

The t- ratio for P and N are 4.70 ($P < .001$) and 4.40 ($p < .001$) respectively suggesting that murderers are significantly more psychotic and more neurotic than other offenders; but there is very small differences in E Scores of the two groups. On NSQ and MAS it was found that the murders scored significantly higher than the other offenders.

The results of this study show that the murderers are more anxious than other criminals. In this study investigator has compared the level of anxiety between two groups of criminals, not between criminals & normals. It is thus difficult to find out real anxiety without comparing these two groups of criminals with a group of normals which is to be control group.

Kaliappan et al. (1982) have also conducted a study on "State anxiety of prisoners in comparison to normal persons and cancer patients". They have used three groups, normal persons, cancer patients and prisoners. These groups consisted of twenty five prisoners undergoing life imprisonment for committing murders, and twenty five normal individuals who neither suffered from any major illness nor severe stressed were included. The third group consisted of 25 patients suffering from cancer. The groups were matched with regard to age and socio-economic strata. They were of age ranging between 21 & 50 years and belonged to middle and low socio-economic strata. To assess their anxiety level all the subjects were administered Spielberger's state Anxiety Scale.

The results of the study show that prisoners have high State Anxiety than the normals and cancer patients. The differences between these groups are - statistically significant ($P \leq 0.01$) except between cancer patient and normal persons.

The overall results reveal that prisoners have high state anxiety level which possibly may be due to their stressful life within the prison.

Kaliappan et al. (1982a) have interpreted their findings on the assumption of stressful situation as a cause of high state anxiety among prisoners but not as a cause of criminality.

Similarly, Kaliappan et al. (1982b) have conducted another study on "Trait Anxiety of prisoners in comparison to normal persons and anxiety patients". Sixty five offenders undergoing life imprisonment for committing murder were selected for the study. The study included a group of 65 normal individuals. Who were not suffering from any psychiatric illness and another group of 65 Anxiety patients who sought psychiatric treatment.

The groups were matched with regard to age and socio-economic strata. All these three groups were administered -

Spielberger's Trait Anxiety Scale to assess their personality proneness for Anxiety.

The results of this study show that the difference in trait anxiety between prisoners and anxiety patients is not statistically significant. But prisoners have high - trait anxiety as compared to normal - persons and the difference between them is found to be statistically significant.

This study conducted by Kaliappan is restricted only to one category of crime, for example, murder. In this way they have assessed only the anxiety among murders but not among other criminals.

In a subsequent study Kaliappan et al. (1984) have determined the level of "Anxiety among delinquents. The sample consisted of one hundred and twenty five children in the age group of 10 to 18 years: comprising of three groups namely 43 normal children, 46 destitutes and 36 delinquents.

The normal children were selected from corporation and Government Schools and they had no history of conviction for delinquent behaviour. The delinquent children were drawn

at random - from the Government Reception home, Kellys; Madras. The offence committed by them was theft. The destitutes were randomly selected from the Junior Approved School.

General Anxiety Scale for children (GASC) developed by Sarason et al. (1960) was administered to measure the general anxiety level of the sample.

The test administered to a group of five children at a time. After explaining the questionnaire their responses were scored. Subjects who responded negatively to six or more lie items were rejected and finally a sample of 90 subjects consisting of 30 subjects in each group was selected for final analysis.

The results show that the normal school children have lesser anxiety than the delinquents and destitutes. The difference in the anxiety level between the destitutes and delinquent children is not significant. The results of the present study clearly reveal that the delinquents and destitutes children have more anxiety than normal children.

The study conducted by Kaliappan et al. (1984) was however restricted to children who committed crime like theft. But have not investigated anxiety among other criminals.

This shortcoming was overcome by Khan et al. (1986) who compared the "level of anxiety among under trial prisoners committing difference crimes". The sample of their study comprised of 45 under trial prisoners and 45 normal persons. Under-trial prisoners were randomly selected from Aligarh district Jail in such a manner that an equal number of them fell into three criminal groups, namely, murderers, dacoits, and thieves. Thus there were four groups of subjects. All the four groups of subjects were matched in terms of age, income, education and socio-economic background;

Sinha, W.A. Self Analysis Form (1968) was used to measure the level of anxiety among under-trial prisoners and normal persons.

Information with regard to age, education, and socio-economic background of the subjects was also collected so that the influence of these variables may be controlled by suitable experimental design.

The under trial prisoners of Aligarh district Jail were at first contacted individually with the permission of Jail Superintendent and their case and crime history were prepared. After identifying their nature of crime, they were

classified into three criminal groups, namely, murderers, dacoits and thieves. The fourth group comprised of normal persons who had never been accused of any crime or convicted for any crime.

A good rapport was made with them and Sinha's (1968) .A. Self Analysis Form was administered individually for assessing the level of anxiety. The results obtained by Khan et al. (1986) reveal that thieves are more anxious than murderers and dacoits. Their difference was found statistically significant. But the murderers were slightly more anxious than dacoits but they do not differ significantly. The results also show that the under-trial prisoners are more anxious than normal persons. Khan et al. (1986) have compared the level of anxiety among under-trial prisoners committing different crimes. But as we have maintained earlier that some of the under-trial prisoners may be found innocent after trial. So the findings of their study can not be generalized to criminals as a whole.

(B) - Level of Aspiration:

The fact of paucity of literature on delinquents and criminals in relation to anxiety referred to earlier is more true with regard to level of aspiration. Present writer tried his level best and consulted available British, American & Indian journals since the beginning of this research but he could find out only four relevant studies; three foreign and one Indian. In the light of this fact a detailed review of these studies seems more essential.

First two important studies of level of aspiration, one dealing with the development and evaluation of a controlled method and the other as a measurable personality variable have been conducted by Rotter, J.B. (1942b & 1945). Before conducting these empirical studies Rotter (1942a) also published a critical review and pointed out several uncontrolled conditions in previous studies. He concluded; "All in all, in every level of aspiration situation the nature of the situational factors and certain individual 'Personality' factors interact to determine the response. However, little or nothing is known about the stability or nature of these personality factors.

"In order to determine the nature of these personality variables it would be necessary to develop instructions that are not easily misinterpreted by the subject and in which previous experience with the task is controlled. It would also be necessary to examine all aspects of the individuals' response, rather than limiting a description only to the difference between the expressed and achieved goals". The above mentioned empirical researches have their origin in the above quoted thinking of the author.

In the first study Roetter (1942b) tried to develop a controlled procedure in which instructions, task and measures studied, were to be standardized.

With regard to the selection of the instructions two, three types of instructions were tried and finally a version of standard instructions was prepared.

In connection with the selection of the task again several activities were considered and finally a specially designed apparatus was prepared which fulfilled most of the conditions of seven point criteria of a task in level of aspiration experiments.

Apart from the previous practice of a single score that is one that represented by the difference between subjects estimates and performances other measures indicating the relationship between estimates and performance, a measure of stability of estimates, scores indicating the nature of changing estimates following success and failure were also tried and evaluated.

Five groups of subjects with the standard instructions and uniform procedures were given trials on the level of aspiration apparatus, specially designed for this purpose. The first group of subjects consisted of 50 hospital employees, out of which there were 22 males and 28 females, among 22 males 18 were nursing affiliates, the mean age for male was 27.8 years while that for female it was 22.4 years.

Group second consisted of 45 College students, 23 males and 22 females, males varied between the ages of 18 to 30 years, with a mean age of 21.3 years. The females age range was also similar to that of males, but its mean, age was 21.9 years.

Third Group consisted of 21 crippled students attending College. They suffered from severe to minor disabilities. The

group consisted of 11 males and 10 females. The age range was 19 to 24 with a mean of 21.2 for males and 18 to 26 with a mean of 21.1 for females.

Fourth Group was very heterogeneous one with regard to age, colour etc. Th

The fifth group which is of chief interest for the present researcher consisted of 18 male inmates of Indiana State Penitentiary, all of them were white and were undergoing short sentences. Their age ranged between 16 to 35 years of age. They were of average or better intelligence.

The results of the study may be summarized as follows under various headings:

INSTRUCTIONS:

From the data of the study, (Rotter 1942b) has concluded that the objections regarding the interpretation of instruction by the subjects by Gould (1939) seems baseless but the problem of scoring over one's bid remains to be considered in this connection. He holds that interviews with the subjects group I at the end of the experiment shows that when subject scored above his bid, he felt a sort of definite satisfaction. In case of well over performance the

feeling of satisfaction was accompanied by some feeling of regret for not having bid higher. He considers that success in real life is similar to this experience.

TASK:

The investigator found that Aspiration Board had high interest value for the subjects and is convenient to use in various situations. In order to determine and ascertain the novelty of the task as well as to find out, whether the subject was introducing socially set standards into the test situations and whether absolute level of performance was influencing the behaviour for this purpose he has computed certain correlations of absolute level of performance with the mean of the differences between each estimates and the preceding performance and also with the number of success for each subject. The correlation computed were quite small, the largest correlation was also insignificant. The practice effect also seems to be minimum in performance on the aspiration board. It has been found that the task used in the investigation fulfils most points of the criteria determined to select the most suitable task for the measurement of level of aspiration of the subjects. It creates a great deal of interest, does not appear to be influenced by performance. Level, shows little learning after a short initial practice period, and appears to be free

of attitudes and standards resulting from previous contact with this or a similar task. The task also allows for a large number of trials, providing adequate quantitative results, in a relatively short time.

Several types of scores such as scores obtained by taking the means of the differences between the each performance and the following estimates) (D-Scores), frequency of shifts or changes in the height of estimates, scores obtained from the nature of changes following the success and failure that is typical and atypical changes or shifts and also achievement scores have been used in the past and in the present investigation also to represent the subject's full pattern of response seem to be reliably measurable.

The study is exploratory in nature. It opens way for future studies to use level of aspiration, as a method of personality measurement and, also as a measurable personality variable.

In continuation of his previous study (Cf. Rotter 1942b) Rotter (1945) conducted another study on "Level of Aspiration as a method of studying personality: IV The analysis of patterns of response". "The purpose of this study was to distinguish patterns of responses and to determine their characteristics and meanings. The sample used in this

study consisted of four groups of subjects. The first group consisted of 50 Worcester State Hospital employees, out of which there were 22 male and 28 females. Among 22 males 18 were attendants and among 28 women sixteen were nursing affiliates. Second group consisted of 23 male and 22 female College students. The third group consisted of 21 crippled College students. They suffered from severe to minor disabilities. The group consisted of 11 males and 10 females. The fourth group consisted of eighty prison inmates of the Indiana State Penal Farm who were studied intensively. All the subjects were of average or better intelligence and ranged between 16 to 35 years of age. On the basis of present and past behaviour as indicated by extended case history interviews, prison records, and F.B.I. reports, these subjects were divided into several sub-groups before the aspiration test was administered. The first group consisted of 21 subjects who were characterized as "normal". They indicated social, sexual, and occupational adjustment fairly consonant with abilities and past experience. The second group consisting of 21 subjects was characterized as "Defeated". There were dependent individuals who usually retreated from problems and who had given up any attempts of culturally acceptable achievement. The third group including 31 subjects,

was designated as the "conflict Tension" group. They were unstable, impulsive, thrown into conflict by the necessity of making decisions and, when possible attempted to solve problems by physical escape. Two other classifications, overlapping these three, were treated as experimental groups. The first of these called the "Unselected" group consisted of 52 consecutive admissions to the panel Farm who met the second group which consisted of 23 habituated alcoholic individuals. Minimum criteria for this group were at least two commitments for alcoholism or two commitments in which alcohol played a major role in the crime.

In this study level of aspiration apparatus specially designed for the purpose was used.

The result of this study clearly reveals that the full value of this technique for clinical and some experimental purposes lies in the considerations of the whole pattern of response rather than of the D-Score or any other single Score.

The selected groups show identical modes of behavior in relation to a specific situation. These results appear

consistent with the general nature of the groups. When an attempt was made to understand each case in terms of typical defence reactions to feeling of inferiority, regardless of the group it falls in, the patterns shown on the level of aspiration test were consistent.

The test indicates desire to escape, breakdown tendencies, and impulsiveness. Other inadequate solutions include over-aggressive and over-protective reactions. Responses or solutions that are culturally acceptable differ in themselves, representing, for the most part, trends similar to some of the inadequate responses but to a lesser degree. The results stated into its most general form indicate that the test roughly demonstrates the degree of feelings of inferiority or inadequacy and the nature of the defense or compensation with which the subject attempts to meet the feelings of inadequacy.

The results of this investigation also indicate that this particular technique, which directly observes the individual's actual behavior in a dynamic situation shows considerable promise for the experimental study of personality. At this point in its development, it appears to be clinically diagnostic to a high degree at the extreme or statistically unusual responses. Diagnostic accuracy within the group of less extreme responses appears reasonably high.

More specifically,, the pattern of responses of delinquent found in this study were as follows:-

(1) Defeated prison inmates showed a spread of cases in all of the six unacceptable patterns and very low percentage of individuals who fell in the low positive D-Score pattern. Relatively frequent were pattern (No. 6), the high positive D-Score pattern, showing a tendency toward unreal solutions, the high negative D-Score pattern, indicating strong desire for protection against failure, and the confused or breakdown pattern. The conflict - Tension Group had relatively high frequencies of two patterns indicating an attempt to escape the problem situations (Patterns No. 4 and 8). The alcoholic group showed a very low percentage of the culturally acceptable pattern (No.1) and high relative percentages of the Rigid (escape) pattern and the very high positive D-Score pattern. The pattern appearing with the highest relative frequency in the unselected group of prison inmates was the Rigid or Escape pattern.

The percentage of cases classified in the first three of these patterns as compared to the last six for the same groups was significantly high. It serves to show with remarkable clarity the differences in the "General Adjustment" of the groups. Particularly striking is the high frequency

of acceptable patterns in the group of normal prison inmates in contrast to all the other prison inmate groups. The difference between the unselected group of prison inmates and somewhat comparable group of ~~prison~~ worcester State Hospital males is also striking. The differences between the percentages of acceptable patterns for the normal group of prison inmates and any of the other prison groups were significant.

The critical ratios of these differences are as follows: Normal prison inmates and defeated prison inmates, 2.76; Normal prison inmates and conflict tension prison inmates, 2.63; Normal prison inmates and alcoholics, 3.53; Normal prison inmates and unselected prison inmates, 2.99; Worcester State Hospital males and unselected prison inmates, 3.80. All these values are significant beyond .01 level of significance.

As the results of this study determine the pattern of responses of four groups of subjects in which a group of delinquents is also presented. It is a good beginning to use level of aspiration as a measurable personality variables with its various patterns for different groups of people. Further researches on this line will prove its importance and unsefullness.

Another study was conducted by Cassel et al. (1954) on "Level of aspiration as a means for discerning between "In prison" and "out of prison" groups of individuals". In this study three groups of subjects chosen were group of delinquent boys from a California youth Home, another of women from a California prison and the third group consisted of senior class boys from the Montebello Senior High School, California.

The delinquent group included 247 boys ranging in age from 12 to 18 years, with a mean age of 15.1 and a standard deviations of 1.2 years. The IQ's ranged from 60 to 130. with a mean of 89.7 and standard deviation of 15.0. Offenses as a basis for commitment were found to be distributed as follows:- Sex Offences - 28 cases - 10 percent; Crime against persons - 40 cases - 14.9 percent; Crimes against property - 174 cases - 64.7 percent; and miscellaneous cases - 27 cases - 10 percent. The sex offenses ranged from rape to perversion of many types with main characteristic of sexual advances against five and six years old girls (5 to 26 described as rape with small children). Crimes against persons ranged from assault and battery to murder with the characteristics offense of assault with a deadly weapon (12 out of 30 cases described as assault with a deadly weapon).

Crimes against property were characteristically those of burglary and petty thefts many involving the theft of an automobile or motorcycle. Miscellaneous offenses were characterized by such adjectives as "Waywardness". Included in this latter group were several alcoholics, arsons, check passers, and narcotics.

The panel women group consisted of 277 women ranging in age from 17 to 74 years, with a mean age of 33.6 and S.D. of 10.5 years. The institutional psychologist maintained that the records indicated the women to be of average intelligence and to have a mean scholastic achievement of about two years of high school. Offenses as a basis for commitment were as follows: Sex offenses - 5 cases - 1.9 percent; crimes against person - 87 cases - 33.5 percent; crimes against property - 78 cases - 30 percent; forgery embezzling, and bad checks - 70 cases - 26.9 percent and narcotics and alcoholics - 20 cases - 7.7 percent. In general, the crimes against persons were characterized by greater brutality than for the delinquent boys group and the crimes against property were less bold and more cunning.

The high school senior group included 235 subjects; 118 boys and 117 girls. The group ranged from 15 to 18 years of age with a mean age of 17.2 and a S.D. of 1.7 years. The

intelligence for the boys ranged from 60 to 140 with a mean of 100 and a S.D. of 14.5. The mean IQ for the girls was 100.2 and for the boys 101.0. Scholastic achievement scores ranged from 6.0 grade to 14.0 grade with a mean IQ of 98.5 and with no significant sex differences.

The test used was CGAT test (The CGAT is the standard form published by Western Psychological services, Los Angeles, California). It consists of 12 separate parts, all precisely alike. Only eight parts of the test utilized in the present survey. Each part of the test consists of four lines of capital X's that are double spaced. The task is to draw a small circle at the top and bottom of each X as rapidly as possible for 30 seconds. The Hausmann Technique has been used for administering the test i.e. individuals are instructed that their scores will not be greater than their bid and will be two points less than their performance for each X bid and not completed.

The results of this study show that four of the five indices utilized from the test yielded significantly different scores between the "in prison" and "out-of-prison" groups of individuals.

The aspiration pattern for the former group was characterized by a high unstructured first goal (usually above 38.0), a high mean aspiration "D" Score (usually above 5.00), one or more "atypical" clinical "D" Scores, and generally a low and often negative physiological response to failure. The "out-of-prison" group pattern was the converse of the one described above.

The results of above study conducted by Cassel and his associates (1954) restricted only to determine the effectiveness of a newly constructed group level of aspiration test for discerning between two "in-prison" group of individuals and "out-of-prison" group of individuals, not for measuring level of aspiration of criminals.

Rajeswari (1964) also conducted an investigation entitled "study of level of aspiration of delinquents and non delinquents". The sample consisted of two adolescent boys ranging between 13 to 15 years of age out of which there were 50 delinquent boys and 50 normal school-going children. The delinquents (Ds) at the time of investigation were remained to the Juvenile Court for various offences and were staying in the "Govt. Reception Home for boys and Girls", Egmore-Madras. Only cases falling under the sections of 'theft' and 'Liquor Passing' were considered. The fifty

non-delinquents (NDs) were studying in IX standard and were attending a corporation school in the city. The Socio-economic background of both delinquent and non-delinquent groups was almost similar. Bhatia's intelligence test was used to ascertain the similarity of the sample selected with regard to their intelligence and Rotter's level of aspiration board was used to measure level of aspiration of the subjects.

These two tests were administered in a session lasting for one and a half hour with a break for five minutes. Twenty trials were given to test the level of aspiration. Each trial consisted of five hits. The experiment was carried on after allowing enough practice trials on the task. After the subject completed one trial, his performance score was announced. Before he started on the next trial, he was asked to give his aspiration score for the succeeding trial. The experimental question that was used to elicit the estimate was, "what score you intend to make on the next trial. The procedure followed in this study was similar to other investigations in this field.

The aspiration measures used to interpret the results were as follows:-

1. Goal Discrepancy Score (GDS):

It refers to the differences between the past performance and the succeeding estimates. It is positive if the goal lies above that of the past performance otherwise it is negative.

2. Goal Tenacity Score (GTS):

This is the relative propensity to maintain a high level of aspiration in the face of failure experiences. It represents an attempt to explicitly measure individual difference in response to intra-serial success and failure in setting the level of aspiration.

3. Average Height of Aspiration:

This simply refers to the mean score of all his aspiration level in a task. In the present experiment it refers to the mean score of the twenty aspiration scores.

4. Average Height of Performance:

This refers to the mean absolute score of the twenty performance scores in a task.

5. Flexibility Measure:

This is the response and the tendency to shift the level of aspiration from one level to another. The index of flexibility is the simple sum of all shifts in the level of aspiration during the test. It does not take into account the direction of changes of level of aspiration which occur after success and failure.

6. Rigidity Measure:

This is the response in which the subject sticks to the same level of aspiration irrespective of success or failure.

7. Index of Responsiveness:

- (a) Typical response:- This is the response where the level of aspiration is raised with success and lowered with failure.
- (b) Atypical response:- This is the response where the level of aspiration is raised with failure and lowered with success.

For purposes of comparison between the two groups. Mean, S.D., Standard error and critical Ratio were computed. Product moment correlation between aspiration and performance scores for delinquents and non-delinquents separately was also computed.

The results obtained by Rajeswari were as follows:-

1. The mean GDS was highly positive for NDs compared to that of Ds. The mean difference being significant at .01 level.
2. The average height of aspiration was greater among NDs than the Ds. The mean difference being significant at .01 level.
3. The NDs had a higher mean goal tenacity score compared to the Ds, thereby indicating greater substantance of aspiration level. The difference being significant at .01 level.
4. Flexibility measure was found to be more for Ds compared to that of NDs. The mean difference significant at .01 level.
5. The number of typical and atypical both type of shifts were greater for the Ds. Than non-delinquents. The mean difference being significant at .01 level.
6. The NDs showed greater rigidly than the delinquents. The mean difference being significant at .01 level.
7. There was no significant difference between the performance scores of Ds and NDs.

The scope of the study is very limited as in it only delinquents committing thefts and offenses related with liquor regulations have been studied. Hence, the findings of this study may not be safely and confidently be generalized for the whole criminal and delinquent populations.

C H A P T E R -III

METHOD

As mentioned in the preceding chapters the present research was planned to study anxiety and level of aspiration of criminals convicted for, crimes against person and crimes against property. More specifically, the present investigation was undertaken to answer the following questions:-

1. Is there significant difference between the level of anxiety of criminals convicted for crimes against person & criminals convicted for crimes against property?
2. Is there significant difference between the level of aspiration of criminals convicted for crimes against person and criminals convicted for crimes against property?
3. Is there significant difference between the level of anxiety of normals and criminals convicted for crimes against person?
4. Is there significant difference between the level of anxiety of normal and criminals convicted for crimes against property?
5. Is there significant difference between the level of aspiration of normals and criminals convicted for crimes against person?

6. Is there significant difference between the level of aspiration of normals and criminals convicted for crimes against property?
7. Is there significant difference between the level of anxiety of normals and criminals as a whole?
8. Is there significant difference between level of aspiration of normals and criminals as a whole?

Statistical Treatment of Data:

To answer the above questions 't' test of significance was applied. To compute 't' value with the help of frequency distributions of level of aspiration scores and anxiety scores for various groups of subjects, Means and S.Ds were found out. From these statistics with the help of the following formula 't' was calculated:

$$t = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{SEd}$$

$$SEd = \sqrt{\frac{SD_1^2}{N_1} + \frac{SD_2^2}{N_2}}$$

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{d^2}{N}}$$

Tools:**(a) Anxiety Test:**

In the present investigation the Sinha W-A Self-Analysis-Form (1968) as an Anxiety measuring instrument was used. The scale was administered upon criminals and normals. This scale was a measure of overall manifest anxiety as well as anxiety in various areas such as Social, Psychological, Economic and Physical. The Scale consists of hundreds items with forced choice response alternatives of 'Yes' and 'No'. The maximum possible score on the scale for a subject may go upto hundred while minimum score possible is as small as zero. The level of anxiety is positively related to the number of the scores, which means higher the score of a subject on the scale, the greater the level of anxiety and vice-versa. It is a self-administering inventory. Although it has been prepared to be administered on groups but it may also be used upon individual subject. The inventory contains self sufficient instructions for its administration. This inventory, of course, is suitable for litterate subjects who can read and follow the instructions printed on it. The inventory has been written in simple language and its items depict day-to-day common situations of various sphares of human personality.

The scale has been found highly reliable and valid. Sinha (1968) found split half reliability coefficient of .88 for the inventory which when corrected with Spearman Brown formula the coefficient became 0.94. This indicates high reliability of the test. In connection with validity the scores on the test were correlated against Tailor's M.A.S. Scale. The validity coefficient was found to be .73 which is significant and shows that the test measures anxiety because it has been constructed for this purpose.

(b) Level of Aspiration Test:

In order to measure the level of aspiration among criminals and normals, a test constructed by Tiwari et al. (1976) was used. Although there are many tests of level of aspiration that are available and have been used by researchers but in the light of the fact that criminals are generally less educated, the present test was chosen. This is very simple but highly efficient test. Although authors of the test have not quoted reliability and validity coefficients of the test in its manual but the technique of the test is quite the same as have been used in most of the other level of aspiration tests. The test therefore, is presumed to be satisfactorily reliable and valid.

The test consisted of ten level of aspiration Forms. There are in each test sheet five rows of forty eight half inches squares. In first, third, and fifth row there are ten squares and in second, and fourth row, there are nine squares. In total there are forty eight squares. On the left hand corner of the page, there is a space for expected scores and on the bottom right hand side there is space for actual scores. For administration of the test only stop watch is needed with test sheets. It may be administered to group as well as to an individual. Only two signals "Start" and "Stop" are given to the subjects. The task is to draw "Satia" (卐) in the squares of the test sheet with a given time of 30 seconds. Only 10 trials are given to a subject.

Sample:

After having ascertained the suitability of tools to be used for the present study. The next step was to select a representative sample of the criminals and normals on which the test could be administered. The sample of the present investigation included 150 criminals randomly chosen from Aligarh District Jail and 75 Normals drawn from

Aligarh City. Out of 150 criminals, there were 75 criminals who were convicted for crimes against person such as dacoity, robbery, murder, assault etc. & other group of 75 criminals were those who were convicted for crimes against property. The age range of the subjects was 25 to 50 years.

Procedure:


After obtaining permission from I.G. (Prison) of U.P., the present investigator contacted Jail authorities, district Jail Aligarh and discussed certain procedural methods and other important points with them so that necessary information could be easily collected. It was decided that the random purposive sample would be the best sample. Superintendent of Jail, Jailor and other officials introduced the investigator to some NUMBARDARS and asked them to help in the work. With the help of these Numbardars Investigator contacted the prisoners in small groups, talked to them and discussed various matters of their interest so that they may become frank and friendly. Thus a good rapport was established and they became ready to help in the work by filling the psychological tests and providing other necessary information.

Among the criminals contacted there were also few under trials for both type of crimes under investigation. They were included in the category of criminals due to their confession which they made before the investigator on the assurance of keeping all matters & information secret. In this way in a number of sessions level of aspiration Scale and anxiety scale were administered upon 150 criminals out of which 75 were convicted for crimes against person and next 75 were convicted for crimes against property. Care was taken to select only those criminals who could read & write Hindi satisfactorily. They were instructed not to write their names. They were also assured that the information gathered from them would be kept secret and would not affect them adversely in any way. Information with regard to certain socio-economic variables was also collected from them.

With regard to normals, these tests, i.e. anxiety scale and level of aspiration scale were administered individually whenever they were available and was convenient to the investigator.

The subjects were instructed individually to read the questionnaire carefully and if there is anything vague in the written material they were asked to clear up by asking the investigator.

Instructions of the anxiety scale were read out to each subject so desired. Generally a questionnaire was completed by the subject within one or two hours. So after completing the questionnaire subjects were asked to return their questionnaires to the investigator. After returning the first questionnaire, second test of level of aspiration was given to the subjects.

The investigator instructed the subjects that they had to draw the "Satis" () in the columns of a given form of level of aspiration. They had to draw as many "Satias" as they could within 30 seconds. Only two signals "Start" and "Stop" were given to the subjects. Before starting the work subjects were asked to write down the expected scores in the given column. When they had done it they were given "start" signal and work was started and after 30 seconds "stop" signal was given to the subject to stop the task. After completing the forms investigator asked the subjects to count their performance scores and write down their actual scores in the column which is there on the bottom of the form. In this manner ten forms one by one were given to each subject and subjects completed them again and again within the given time.

After completing the task subjects returned the forms to the investigator. Then investigator scored them and calculate the D-Score through following formula;
$$\text{D-Score} = \text{Actual Score} - \text{Expected Score of the next trial.}$$
Similarly the mean of the all D-Scores of each trial were computed to draw the level of aspiration of the subject.

C H A P T E R -IV

RESULT AND DISCUSSIONS

From an over all view of the tables of results it is quite obvious that there is no significant difference between criminals convicted for crimes against person & criminals convicted for crimes against property with regard to their level of aspiration as well as their levels of anxiety. But normals and criminals grouped as a whole as well as with regard to the nature of their crimes differed significantly with regard to the level of aspiration & the level of anxiety.

In order to answer the questions raised earlier it seems pertinent to interpret the results table wise & observe significance of difference, if any, among various groups of subjects in their levels of aspiration and levels of anxiety.

Table -1

Showing the results of the t-test as applied on the anxiety scores of normals and criminals convicted for crimes against person (CCPRS).

	N	M	SD	t	P
Normals	75	26.99	13.66	7.36	<.01
Criminals (CCPRS)	75	46.15	17.94		

Above table shows that with regard to anxiety the mean score of normals is much lower than the average score of criminals convicted for crimes against person. The 't' value is also significant beyond .01 level of significance. This value clearly indicates that there is markable difference between normals & criminals convicted for crimes against person with regard to their level and amounts of anxiety. This table also reveals that the group of normals with regard to their anxiety level is comparatively more homeogenous than criminals convicted for crimes against person. Dispersion of scores among criminals is wider than that among normals.

The mean anxiety score of normal persons and the mean anxiety score of criminals convicted for crimes against property were compared by using 't' test which is presented in table-11.

Table -11

Showing the results of the t-test as applied on the anxiety scores of normals and criminals convicted for crimes against property (CCPRTY).

	N	M	SD	t	P
Normals	75	26.99	13.66		
				6.473	<.01
Criminals (CCPRTY)	75	45.95	21.37		

It is evident from Table-11 that mean anxiety score (M=45.95) of criminals convicted for crimes against property is much higher than the mean anxiety score (M=26.99) of normal persons. The obtained 't' value is 6.47 which is highly significant ($P < .01$ level of confidence). It thus appears that criminals convicted for crimes against property are much more anxious than normal persons.

Previous results revealed that criminals convicted for crimes against person and criminals convicted for crimes against property were more anxious than normal persons. However, when both groups of criminals grouped together and compared with the normals, yielded expected results. Results are shown in Table-111.

Table -III

Showing the results of the t-test as applied on the anxiety scores of normals and criminals as a whole.

	N	M	SD	t	P
Normals	75	26.99	13.66		
				8.49	<.01
Criminals as a whole	150	46.0	19.41		

A perusal of table-III reveals that anxiety score (M= 46.0) of criminals grouped as a whole (crime against person and crime against property) is higher than anxiety score (M= 26.99) of normal persons. The 't' value is 8.49 which is statistically significant beyond .01 level of confidence. The results clearly demonstrated that criminals grouped as a whole are more anxious than normal persons. However, which of the criminal group is more anxious and which is least one yet to be identified.

Both criminal groups, namely criminal convicted for crimes against person and criminal convicted for crime against property when compared with regard to their level of anxiety yielded the normals that are given in Table-IV.

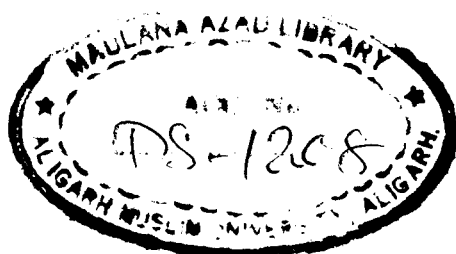
Table -IV

Showing the results of the t-test as applied on the anxiety scores of criminals convicted for. Crimes against person (CCPRS) and criminals convicted for crimes against property (CCPTY).

	N	M	S.D	t	P
Criminals (CCPRS)	75	46.15	17.94		
				.062	Insignificant
Criminals (CCPTY)	75	45.95	21.37		

An examination of Table-IV reveals that anxiety score (M=46.15) of criminals convicted for crimes against person is slightly higher than anxiety score (M=45.95) of criminals convicted for crimes against property.

The 't' value is .06 which is insignificant indicating that there is no much difference among these two criminals groups in their level of anxiety. Although statistically insignificant criminals convicted for crimes against person showed more anxiety than criminals convicted for crimes against property.



These criminal groups and normal groups were also compared with regard to their level of aspiration, the summary is presented in Tables, V, VI, VII & VIII. The mean aspiration level obtained by normals and criminals and significance of difference are given in Table-V.

Table-V

Showing the results of the t-test as applied on the level of aspiration scores of normals and criminals convicted for crimes against person (CCPRS).

	N	M	S.D	t	P
Normals	75	1.10	2.103		
				2.46	<.05
Criminals (CCPRS)	75	.42	1.15		

Table-V shows that mean level of aspiration ($M=1.10$) of normal persons is higher than the mean level of aspiration ($M=.42$) of criminals convicted for crimes against persons. The obtained value is 2.46 which is statistically significant at .05 level. It appears that normal's level of aspiration is in reality higher than the aspiration level of criminals convicted for crimes against person.

Similarly normal persons were also compared with criminals convicted for crimes against property with regard to their level of aspiration. The mean of aspiration level of normals and criminals convicted for crimes against property, S.D's and 't' value are presented in Table-VI.

Table-VI

Showing the results of the t-test as applied on the level of aspiration scores of Normals and Criminals convicted for crimes against property (CCPRTY).

	N	M	S.D.	t	p
Normals	75	1.10	2.103		
				1.35	Insignificant
Criminals (CCPRTY)	75	.63	2.16		

It is apparent from Table-VI that mean aspiration level ($M=1.10$) of normal's is higher than mean aspiration level ($M=.63$) of criminals convicted for crimes against property. The 't' value is 1.35 which is insignificant indicating that there is no real difference between two groups with regard to their level of aspiration. However, level of aspiration of normals persons is higher than

aspirations level of criminals, though it is statistically insignificant.

Normal persons with regard to their level of aspiration were also compared with those of criminals grouped as a whole. The mean level of aspirations, S.D's and 't' value are given in Table-VII.

Table -VII

Showing the results of the t-test as applied on the level of aspiration scores of Normals and Criminals as a whole.

	N	M	S.D	t	P
Normals	75	1.10	2.103		
				2.06	<.05
Criminal as a whole	150	.52	1.743		

Table-VII reveals that mean aspiration level ($M=1.10$) of normal persons is much higher than the mean aspirations level ($M=.52$) of criminals taken as a whole. The 't' value is 2.06 which is significant at .05 level of confidence. The result clearly shows that normal's aspiration is higher than criminal's aspiration.

Criminals committing crimes against person and against property were also compared with each other by applying t-test which is reported in Table.VIII.

Table-VIII

Showing the results of the t-test as applied on the level of aspiration scores of criminals convicted for crimes against person (CCPRS) and criminals convicted against Property (CCPTY).

	N	M	S.D	t	P
Criminals (CCPRS) 75		.42	1.15		
				.743	Insignificant
Criminals (CCPTY) 75		.63	2.16		

It is evident from Table VIII that mean aspiration level ($M=.63$) of criminals convicted for crimes against property is slightly higher than the mean aspiration level ($M=.42$) of criminal convicted against person. The 't' value is .74 which is insignificant. The result clearly demonstrated that although level of aspiration of criminals convicted for crimes against property slightly higher than those criminals convicted for crimes against persons but with regard to this factor here is no real difference between these two groups of criminals.

The aim of the present investigation was to compare the level of anxiety and aspiration between two categories of criminals, namely, convicted for crimes against person & crimes against property as well as to discriminate between normals and two type of criminals separately and collectively.

The results of the study show that comparison of Normals and Criminals convicted for crimes against person as well as crimes against property and all the criminals combined together with respect to their scores on level of aspiration test and anxiety scale yield significant 't' values, indicating real difference between two groups of subjects. The results were in the expected direction of D-Scores were lower than the scores of the normals, showing cautiousness in expectancies by criminals. But with regard to anxiety the trend of scores is found to be just reversed. Here criminal's scores are higher than those of normals. Criminals are more anxious but at the same time more cautious than normals, indicating negative correlation between anxiety and level of aspiration. (Cf. Schroder and Hunt, 1957; Yoshida, 1971). It is also a common place experience that highly anxious people keep themselves within limits and express their expectations

very cautiously. It is most probably due to the fear of failure and the painful experience; associated with such a situation (Cf. Birney, 1969; Sarason, 1960; Spielberger 1972). Although such a rationale with regard to criminals and delinquents is self contradictory. If it holds true in all cases and is so closely associated with each other as a result each of the two may be a cause as well as an effect to the other, then why do the criminals and delinquents who generally have high level of anxiety in comparison to normals but who at the same time also have low level of aspiration commit crimes and delinquent acts which in all probabilities would result in painful experiences. This is a clear indication of the fact that anxiety and level of aspiration may not be taken as causes of delinquent and criminal behaviour. Rather each of the two, anxiousness & cautiousness may be the consequence for its own reasons. A criminal or delinquent may be highly anxious for his criminal acts because either due to the fear of punishment, defamation and disgrace associated with such a criminal act or due to the disapproval and dislike of such a criminal act by his conscience (super ego), he has developed feelings of guilt within himself and feels worried and anxious.

Results of the investigation also show (Cf. table 4 to 8) that there is no significant difference between two types of criminals either with regard to their levels of aspiration or levels of anxiety. It clearly points out that nature of the crime does not affect characteristics of anxiety and level of aspiration of the criminals. As a matter of fact some significance difference was expected between the two categories of criminals. Because, there is a vast difference between the penalties prescribed for two type of offenses; one type having very serious, paniful and long term consequences while the other type having comparatively very mild penalties. But it has not affected criminals in proportion to their serious consequences & penalties because less serious punishments for more serious & henous offenses have already been awarded. There is no fear of dire consequences and if it is there for some criminals they are generally not allowed to be exposed for such investigations.

Our presumption of negative correlation between anxiety and level of aspiration is supported by many previous studies (Cf. Schroder and Hunt, 1957; Yoshida, 1971). However, there are also studies that do not support above presumption (Cf. Frank, 1938; Sears, 1940; Rotter, 1954; Mahone, 1960).

Nature of relationship between anxiety and level of aspiration that plays constructive role in directing & guiding behaviour of normal persons into right channels may also be utilized to modify and channelize the behaviour of delinquents and criminals. In order to make useful utilization of this relationship future researches need to be carried out to discover means and ways as how to make this relationship useful for this purpose.

S U M M A R Y

The objective of the present investigation was to study the difference in the levels of aspiration and levels of anxiety between two groups of criminals. One of these two groups of criminals was convicted for crimes against person while the other was convicted for crimes against property. Sample of the investigation consisted of 150 criminals; out of which a group of 75 was convicted for one type of offenses and another group of 75 criminals was convicted for other type of crimes, and a control group of 75 normal persons. The criminals were selected from district Jail Aligarh. Normals were also chosen from general population of Aligarh. Sinha's W-A self analysis form & Tiwari et al's level of aspiration scale were administered to all these groups of subjects. 't' test was applied to study significance of difference between various groups such as two groups of criminals, all criminals as one group & Normals, & between each group of criminals & normals. Results of the study show:-

- (1) that there is significant difference between each group of criminals and normals with regard to both anxiety and level of aspiration.

- (2) that there is significant difference between normals and criminals as one group with regard to the above personality variables, and
- (3) that there is no significant difference between two groups of criminals with regard to anxiety and level of aspiration.
- (4) that trend of the results points out a negative correlation between level of anxiety and level of aspiration.

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Dr. D. H. SINGH AND Dr. GOVIND TIWARI

TEST FOR LEVEL OF ASPIRATION (आकांक्षा स्तर परीक्षण)

नाम आयु लिंग प्रयास संख्या

EXPECTED SCORE									
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
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<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
PREDICTED SCORE									
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>								

Expected Score—Actual Score=D. Score

Published by—Agra Psychological Research Cell, Tiwari Kothi, Belanganj, AGRA-4

SINHA ANXIETY SCALE

(SINHA W. A. SELF-ANALYSIS FORM)

*Constructed and Standardized by***D. Sinha****Professor & Head of the Deptt. of Psychology****University of Allahabad****ALLAHABAD****निम्न सूचनाएँ परीक्षार्थी को स्वयं भरनी हैं।**

नाम	उम्र	वर्ष	माह
विवाहित/अविवाहित। स्त्री/पुरुष			
कक्षा	स्कूल (या कॉलेज)		
पिता (या अभिभावक) का व्यवसाय	जाति		
परिवार की संयुक्त मासिक आय			
दिनांक			

निर्देशन

अगले पृष्ठों पर आपकी सामाजिक और व्यावहारिक समस्याओं से सम्बन्धित कुछ वाक्य दिये हुए हैं। इन वाक्यों में उन्हीं बातों का उल्लेख है जो आप अपने दैनिक जीवन में अनुभव करते हैं और व्यवहार में लाते हैं। इन वाक्यों का सम्बन्ध आपकी बुद्धि परीक्षा से नहीं बल्कि कुछ तथ्यों की जाँच से है।

सूची में दी हुई प्रत्येक समस्या को ध्यान से पढ़िये। प्रत्येक समस्या के सामने “हाँ” या “नहीं” लिखा हुआ है। आपके व्यवहार व परिस्थिति में जो समस्या सत्य या असत्य हो उनमें से प्रत्येक के सामने “हाँ” या “नहीं” पर निशान (✓) लगाइये। जैसे :—“मुझे अपने ऊपर बिल्कुल विश्वास नहीं है” यदि यह वाक्य आपके व्यवहार में सत्य है तो “हाँ” के सामने निशान (✓) लगाइए और यदि असत्य है तो “नहीं” के सामने निशान लगाइए।

सूची भरने के लिए आपको पूरी स्वतंत्रता है। आपके उत्तर पूर्ण रूप से गोपनीय रखे जायेंगे। प्रत्येक समस्या को पढ़िए और उसके सामने अपने विचार के अनुसार निशान लगाइए।

सभी समस्याओं पर निशान लगाना आवश्यक है कृपया शीघ्रता से उत्तर दें।

प्रकाशक :**रूपा साइकलॉजिकल कारपोरेशन**

सोरा कुआँ, वाराणसी।

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उत्तर शीघ्र दीजिए

प्रत्येक समस्या का उत्तर देना आवश्यक है ।

क्रम संख्या	निशान (✓) लगाइये
१. मुझे तेज सवारी पर चलने से घबड़ाहट होती है ।	हाँ नहीं
२. मैं थोड़ी सी भी आवाज से घबड़ा जाता हूँ ।	हाँ नहीं
३. विपरीत लिंग के व्यक्ति (Opposite sex) से मिलने पर मुझे कुछ घबड़ाहट-सी मालूम होती है ।	हाँ नहीं
४. घर के बाहर जाने पर कभी-कभी सन्देह होता है कि मैंने बक्स या दरवाजा बन्द किया या नहीं ।	हाँ नहीं
५. मैं अधिकतर यह सोचकर परेशान रहता हूँ कि कहीं लोग मेरा मजाक न उड़ाएँ ।	हाँ नहीं
६. कभी-कभी मुझे सन्देह होता है कि मेरे मित्र मेरी गुप्त बातों को प्रकट न कर दें ।	हाँ नहीं
७. प्रायः मुझमें अपराध की भावना होती है ।	हाँ नहीं
८. कभी-कभी मैं नाखून कुतरता हूँ ।	हाँ नहीं
९. मुझे प्रायः एक डर बना रहता है कि कहीं कोई आपत्ति या दुर्भाग्य न टूट पड़े ।	हाँ नहीं
१०. ठंडक के दिनों में भी मुझे बड़ी आसानी से पसीना आ जाता है ।	हाँ नहीं
११. मुझे प्रायः बुरे और डरावने सपने दिखाई देते हैं ।	हाँ नहीं
१२. मुझे कभी-कभी यह चिन्ता हो जाती है कि कहीं मैं नपुंसक न हो जाऊँ ।	हाँ नहीं
१३. कभी-कभी इस बिचार से मैं परेशान हो जाता हूँ कि अपने काम में अधिक प्रगति नहीं कर पाऊँगा ।	हाँ नहीं
१४. अपनी आलोचना सुनकर मैं बहुत घबड़ा जाता हूँ ।	हाँ नहीं
१५. कभी-कभी अपने ऊपर इतनी आत्म-ग्लानि होती है कि मन करता है कि समाज से कहीं दूर भाग जाऊँ ।	हाँ नहीं

कम संख्या

निशान (✓) लगाइए

१६. यदि कोई मेरी गलतियाँ दूसरों के सामने कहता है तो मैं विचलित-सा हो जाता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
१७. बीसारी के कोटाणुओं के भय से मैं शायद ही कभी घर के बाहर पानी पीता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
१८. कभी-कभी मैं अकारण ही दुःखी हो जाता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
१९. मुझे अधिकतर ऐसा लगता है कि दूसरे लोग मेरी उपेक्षा कर रहे हैं ।	हाँ	नहीं
२०. मैं बड़ी आसानी से धर्म-संकट में पड़ जाता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
२१. किसी एक कार्य पर ध्यान केन्द्रित करना मेरे लिये प्रायः मुश्किल हो जाता है ।	हाँ	नहीं
२२. अक्सर मेरा जो मचलाता है !	हाँ	नहीं
२३. काम करते समय मेरे हाथ कांपते हैं ।	हाँ	नहीं
२४. मुझे कभी-कभी भय हो जाता है कि नए कपड़े पहन कर मैं बेढंगा न लगूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
२५. मुझे यह जानकर परेशानी होती है कि मेरा मुँह शर्म से लाल होने जा रहा है ।	हाँ	नहीं
२६. मुझे अधिकतर ऐसा लगता है कि मेरा दिल जोर से धड़क-रहा है ।	हाँ	नहीं
२७. मुझे दूसरों की अपेक्षा अधिक घबड़ाहट होती है ।	हाँ	नहीं
२८. मुझे अक्सर रोने की इच्छा होती है ।	हाँ	नहीं
२९. कभी-कभी चिन्ता के कारण मुझे नींद नहीं आती ।	हाँ	नहीं
३०. मुझे अपने से बड़े (निर्देशक, अध्यापक, अधीक्षक) से मिलने में परेशानी होती है ।	हाँ	नहीं
३१. कभी-कभी मैं बहुत बेचैन हो उठता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
३२. दूसरों की गलतियों पर भी मैं शर्मिन्दा हो जाता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
३३. जल्दी काम करने से मेरा दम फूलने लगता है ।	हाँ	नहीं
३४. मैं अपना काम काफी मानसिक तनाव की हालत में करता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
३५. अक्सर मुझे ऐसा लगता है कि मुझे कोई नहीं चाहता ।	हाँ	नहीं
३६. मेरे सामने कोई कठिन काम आने पर मैं कांपने लगता हूँ या मुझे पसीना आने लगता है ।	हाँ	नहीं
३७. कभी-कभी मैं सपने देखता हूँ कि बुरी तरह बीमार हो गया हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
३८. कभी-कभी मैं ऐसे सपने देखता हूँ जो दूसरों से कहने लायक नहीं होते ।	हाँ	नहीं
३९. किसी चीज के लिए प्रतीक्षा करना मेरे लिए एक परेशानी हो जाती है ।	हाँ	नहीं

क्रम संख्या

निशान (✓) लगाइए

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| ४०. मेरी भावनाओं को बड़ी जल्दी ठेस लग जाती है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ४१. मैं हमेशा किसी न किसी चीज के लिए परेशान रहता हूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ४२. मैं हरदम पेट की गड़बड़ी से परेशान रहता हूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ४३. किसी भी प्रकार के निश्चय पर पहुँचने में मुझे बहुत कठिनाई होती है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ४४. मैं कभी-कभी व्यर्थ की बातों के लिए भी चिन्तित हो जाता हूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ४५. मैं अधिकतर डरा करता हूँ कि कहीं मैं अपने मित्रों को न खो बैदूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ४६. कभी-कभी मैं इतना उत्तेजित हो जाता हूँ कि साफ-साफ बोल नहीं पाता । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ४७. मुझे अन्य लोगों की अपेक्षा अधिक आत्म-संकोच (self conscious) होता है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ४८. मुझे जीवन अधिकतर एक भार सा लगता है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ४९. मुझे अपने ऊपर बिलकुल विश्वास नहीं है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ५०. कभी-कभी मेरे लिए मानसिक स्थिरता बनाए रखना कठिन हो जाता है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ५१. जब बुरे सपने के कारण मेरी नींद टूट जाती है तो मेरे लिए किर सोना मुश्किल हो जाता है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ५२. कभी-कभी मुझे छोटी-छोटी बातों पर भी लज्जा और शोभ होता है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ५३. जब मुझे किसी अनजान व्यक्ति से मिलना हो तो मुझे घबड़ाहट होती है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ५४. मेरी नींद रात में कई बार टूट जाती है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ५५. कभी-कभी मुझे ऐसा लगता है कि मैं समाज को मुँह दिखलाने लायक नहीं हूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ५६. जब दो या अधिक लोग कानाफूसी करते हैं तो मुझे लगता है कि वे मेरे ही बारे में बात कर रहे हैं । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ५७. यदि मुझसे कोई अनुचित सामाजिक व्यवहार हो जाता है तो मैं उसे भूल नहीं पाता । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ५८. जीवन की बीती घटनाओं को सोचकर मुझे कुछ शोभ-सा होता है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ५९. कभी-कभी मैं यह सोचकर परेशान हो जाता हूँ कि बूढ़े होने पर मेरे बच्चे मेरा आदर नहीं करेंगे । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ६०. यात्रा शुरू करने से पहले मैं कुछ चिन्तित हो जाता हूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ६१. मैं ऐसी परिस्थितियों में पड़ना पसन्द नहीं करता जिनमें निर्णय शीघ्र करना पड़ता है । | हाँ | नहीं |

क्रम संख्या

निशान (✓) लगाइये

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| ६२. मुझे अक्सर यह चिन्ता बनी रहती है कि मैं देखने में सुन्दर नहीं हूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ६३. कभी-कभी मुझे ऐसा लगता है कि मैं शीघ्र बूढ़ा होने लगा । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ६४. यदि मुझे डाक्टर या सर्जन के पास दिखलाने के लिए जाना होता है तो मुझे घबड़ाहट होती है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ६५. कभी-कभी मुझे शंका हो जाती है कि मेरे मित्र मुझे धोखा न दें । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ६६. जब मैं कोई नया काम करता हूँ तो मुझे परेशानी रहती है कि दूसरे समर्थन करेंगे या नहीं । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ६७. मैं अपने स्वास्थ्य के विषय में अधिकतर चिन्तित रहा करता हूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ६८. लोगों के बीच भी मैं अधिकतर अकेला महसूस करता हूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ६९. जब मैं किसी व्यक्ति की प्रतीक्षा करता हूँ जिसने किसी निश्चित समय पर आने को कहा है तो मुझे अक्सर ऐसा लगता है कि शायद वह नहीं आयेगा । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ७०. कभी-कभी मैं कुछ ऐसे कामों से परेशान हो जाता हूँ जिनको मैं स्पष्ट रूप से जानता नहीं । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ७१. बहुत बार ऐसा होता है कि मैं साफ-साफ नहीं सोच सकता हूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ७२. बहुधा मैं यह निश्चित नहीं कर पाता हूँ कि किस तरह से काम करना मेरे लिए अच्छा होगा । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ७३. मैं बहुधा अपने बारे में अनिश्चित रहता हूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ७४. कभी-कभी मैं ऐसा सोच बैठता हूँ कि मैं किसी काम का नहीं हूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ७५. मुझे अधिकतर ऐसा लगता है कि यह संसार तथा मनुष्य दोनों ही व्यर्थ हैं । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ७६. असफल होने के भय से मुझे किसी काम को शुरू करने में हिचकिचाहट होती है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ७७. सपनों में कभी-कभी मैं अपने निकट और प्रिय सम्बन्धियों की मृत्यु देखता हूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ७८. मैं शीघ्र ही थक जाता हूँ । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ७९. मेरी हथेली में अक्सर पसीना आता है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ८०. इस डर से कि कहीं लोग मेरा मजाक न उड़ाएँ, मैं लोगों के सम्मुख बात-चीत करना पसंद नहीं करता । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ८१. मुझे अक्सर ऐसा लगता है कि मेरे ऊपर कोई आपत्ति आने वाली है । | हाँ | नहीं |
| ८२. कभी-कभी मुझे ऐसा लगता है कि मुझे लोग पसन्द नहीं करते हैं । | हाँ | नहीं |

क्रम संख्या

निशान (✓) लगाइए

८३. मैं अक्सर चिंतित रहता हूँ कि मेरे भाग्य में क्या लिखा है। हाँ नहीं
८४. दूसरों के किए पर मुझे ही प्रायः दोषी ठहराया जाता है। हाँ नहीं
८५. मैं अक्सर छोटी-छोटी चीजों के लिए भी परेशान रहता हूँ। हाँ नहीं
८६. मैं यह सोचकर कि शायद अपना वायदा पूरा न कर पाऊँ अक्सर परेशान हो जाता हूँ। हाँ नहीं
८७. कठिन परिस्थितियों में मैं बहुत उत्तेजित हो उठता हूँ। हाँ नहीं
८८. मुझे करीब-करीब हर समय भूख-सी लगती है। हाँ नहीं
८९. मैं अक्सर चिंतित रहता हूँ कि भविष्य में शायद किसी संकट में न पड़ जाऊँ। हाँ नहीं
९०. यह चिन्ता मुझे परेशान करती है कि जब मैं बूढ़ा हो जाऊँगा तो मेरा स्वास्थ्य खराब न हो जाए। हाँ नहीं
९१. परिवार में दुर्घटना और मौत की संभावना सोचकर मैं परेशान हो जाता हूँ। हाँ नहीं
९२. मुझे इस बात की अक्सर चिन्ता रहती है कि मैं अपने काम से निकाल न दिया जाऊँ। हाँ नहीं
९३. कभी-कभी मैं इतना उत्तेजित हो उठता हूँ कि मेरे लिए सोना कठिन हो जाता है। हाँ नहीं
९४. यह सोचकर मुझे चिन्ता हो जाती है कि एक दिन मैं भी बूढ़ा हो जाऊँगा। हाँ नहीं
९५. मैं अपनी बेचैनी शायद ही कभी छिपा पाता हूँ। हाँ नहीं
९६. मैं विपरीत लिंग (Opposite sex) के लोगों से बात करते समय कुछ हकलाने-सा लगता हूँ। हाँ नहीं
९७. कभी मुझे ऐसा शक होने लगता है कि मेरे मित्र मेरे बूढ़े होने पर मेरी इज्जत नहीं करेंगे। हाँ नहीं
९८. बुढ़ापे में शारीरिक शक्ति के क्षीण होने की संभावना मुझे सताया करती है। हाँ नहीं
९९. कभी-कभी मैं यह सोचकर परेशान हो जाता हूँ कि क्रोध में मैं किसी की हत्या न कर दूँ या भारी नुकसान न पहुँचा दूँ। हाँ नहीं
१००. इस बात की मुझे अधिकतर चिन्ता रहती है कि मेरे मरने के बाद मेरे परिवार की क्या दशा होगी। हाँ नहीं

केवल परीक्षक के लिए

पृष्ठ	१	२	३	४	५	योग
अंक						